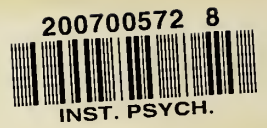


MORGAN. On the state of medicine in  
Italy, circa 1820.

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Extracts from ; - THE JOURNAL OF MENTAL SCIENCE;

No. 49. April 1864. Volume X.

Part III Quarterly Report of the Progress of Psychological Medicine

I Foreign Psychological Medicine.

by J.T.Arlidge, A.B., and M.B. Lond., M.R.C.P.Lond., &c.

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## APPENDIX.

ON THE STATE OF MEDICINE IN ITALY, WITH BRIEF NOTICES OF SOME  
OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND HOSPITALS.

(BY SIR T. CHARLES MORGAN, M. D.)

CONTRA-STIMULANT THEORY OF MEDICINE.—UNIVERSITIES.—*Their Multiplicity.*—PAVIA.—*Mode of electing Professors.*—*Graduation.*—*Collections.*—*Remarkable Lusus Naturæ.*—PADUA.—GENOA.—BOLOGNA.—*Course of Medical Instruction.*—*Library.*—*Collections.*—*Wax-work Anatomy.*—TUSCANY. (*Pisa and Sienna.*)—*School of Medicine at FLORENCE.*—*Physician and Surgeon Fiscal.*—*Anatomical Collection.*—(MASCAGNI.)—*Cabinet de Physique, and unique Wax-work Anatomy Collection.*—(GIUSEPPE RADDI.)—*Ex-Professors at the suppressed Lyceum.*—*Death of SUSSINI.*—ROME.—*Sapienza, and Course at the Hospital St. Spirito.*—NAPLES.—*Writings of DELFICO.*—HOSPITALS.—*Mad-houses.*—TURIN.—*Hospital of St. John—La Charité.*—(*History of Charitable Institutions at Turin during the Revolution.*)—GENOA.—*Hospital Pammatone. (St. Caterina.)*—*Hospital of Incurables.*—MILAN.—*Ospedale Maggiore.*—*Penitentiary.*—*Hospital for the Insane.*—PAVIA.—BOLOGNA.—*Ospedale della Vita.*—FLORENCE.—*St. Maria Maggiore.*—*Hospital for the Insane.*—ROME.—*Santo Spirito.*—*Hospitals at NAPLES.*—*Albergo de' Poveri.*—CLIMATE OF ITALY.—*Mal-aria.*

THE natural sciences connected only with the most general interests of humanity, come less frequently into collision with the passions, and are less calculated to excite the jealousy of Church and State despotism, than those which treat directly of moral and social existence. Indispensable to the development of power, both commercial and military, they cannot be neglected with impunity; and whether the nation works on its own account, or labours for the profit of an absolute sovereign, they will always meet with a certain degree of encouragement. When, therefore, upon the overthrow of

the Republics of Italy, the human intellect was placed under the tutelage of inquisitors and censors, whatever independence of thought escaped from the trammels of a false and pernicious education, gave vent to its impatience in the pursuit of these less forbidden truths.

But if the natural sciences are the last to perish under the compression of absolute governments, still they eventually sink under the vices of the system. There is so close a connexion between the moral and physical man, that no truths are absolutely indifferent to the domineering classes which oppose their egotism to the welfare of the species; and the instinctive jealousy of these classes is alert, even where the danger is remote and almost imaginary.

The operation of these causes has assigned to the natural philosopher, almost universally, the same position under absolute governments; which is that of a person whose services are indeed important, but who contains within him a germ of dangers not the less to be guarded against, because they are remote. Wherever established authority has interfered, by the extension of patronage, and the founding of academies, the object has been less to develop the force and hasten the march, than to controul and direct the movements of a suspected philosophy. Almost all the little States into which Italy is divided, have their colleges, their libraries, their observatories, and their elaboratories; and there is scarcely an Augustus though lord only of a few square miles, who has not, *propter dignitatem*, his crossed and pensioned literati: but the memory of Galileo, and the example of his fate, are more powerful than even titles and places; and Italy has lost its pre-eminence in the scientific world, as it has forfeited its religious supremacy, and been stripped of its commercial prosperity.

But upon those branches of inquiry most immediately connected with the study of medicine, the direct influence of Church and State has been less mischievous; for though physicians have been very generally suspected of holding opinions too liberal, yet the timidity of those in power, *as men*, has generally overcome their jealousy *as statesmen*; and though their dislike of philosophers and Carbonari has been very considerable, their dread of the gout and the stone is still more influential. In Upper Italy, more especially, the zeal for medical research has never been wholly extinguished; and the stimulus it received from the more enlightened patronage of Joseph the Second, has not been exhausted by subsequent calamities. The names of Volta, Fontana, Scarpa, Mascagni, Borsieri, &c. &c. have given an European

interest to the studies of the Italian Universities, have rendered the opinions prevalent in those seats of science an object of enlightened curiosity to the general philosopher, no less than to the practical physician.

The insulation in which the nations of Europe have grown up, and the commercial and military jealousies that have been fomented, have unquestionably retarded the march of civilization. But a collateral advantage has arisen out of the circumstance, in the establishment of numerous independent *foci* of intellectual light, which have favoured originality of thought, and have been the instrument for overthrowing that banality of opinion, which for so long a period established Aristotle the uncontradicted arbiter of the Catholic world.

In medicine, the advantage of many unconnected schools has been most decisively felt: the number of conflicting theories so created, having demonstrated the futility of all systems unfounded on observation; and forced upon the mind a modesty and reserve in speculation, otherways unattainable. On the other hand, the numerous points of view in which the same subject has been seen in different countries, enable the philosopher (now that international communication is more frequent) to arrive at more grasping and comprehensive notions, than he could have elicited had one beaten track alone been open to his steps.

To the British nation, the school of medicine of France is interesting, by the force of contrast,—by the marked opposition that subsists between the expectant system of that country, and the more active methods of English practitioners. Italian medicine, on the contrary, derives its principal attraction from its coincidence with some leading notions prevalent amongst ourselves, and from a certain general agreement in the practice of the two countries.

In Italy, however, as elsewhere on the Continent, the doctrines of Brown had gained a firmer hold of the medical intellect than they obtained in the country of their birth; and, up to a very recent period, they had exercised a more imperious sway over practice than they ever could boast in these islands. The war of the Revolution, by impeding the communication with England, checked the circulation of our medical works. The writings of Hamilton, Currie, and the later advocates of the antiphlogistic treatment of diseases, were but slowly and partially known; while the influence of the French invasion tended to turn the Italian mind to the expectant system, rather than to the bold and decisive measures which characterise the actual school of medicine in England.

The practice of physic in Italy, under the operation of these causes, may be considered as having been principally Brunonian, partly humoural, and partly expectant; while a very few practitioners still followed the methods derived originally from the works of Sydenham.

In this state of opinions, the public attention was engaged by the writings and practice of Dr. Rasori, an eminent and highly-gifted physician, who, educated in the school of Edinburgh, had been deeply imbued with the doctrines of Brown; and had translated, for the benefit of his countrymen, the *Zoonomia* of Darwin. Circumstances having placed this gentleman at Genoa, during the memorable blockade and siege of that city, he had ample opportunities of studying the petechial fever, which then desolated the Republic. A very short experience sufficed to discover the inefficacy of stimulating medicines in the cure of this disease; and to establish the verity of that doctrine, now so generally embraced in England, that the fever in question is of the nature of an inflammatory complaint. The shock which Dr. Rasori's opinions thus received, became the cause of a succession of observations and experiments, which led him to a conviction that the number of diseases really asthenic, or arising in debility, is very limited; and to the establishment of a system, or theory of medicine, which has become popular in the north of Italy, under the name of the Italian or contra-stimulant system.

This theory may be considered as consisting of two distinct doctrines; first, that respecting the general nature of fever above described, a doctrine to which the English had been led through the experimental observations of Hamilton, the cold affusion of Currie, and through the independent and sceptical boldness which pervaded the Edinburgh and London schools for the last twenty or thirty years.

The second doctrine respects the mode of operation of certain drugs, whose effects are neither consonant with the Brunonian notions, nor with those of any other physiological system then known. The essence of this second doctrine is, that there exists a class of substances whose action reduces fever, slackens the circulation, and, if pushed too far, induces direct debility, *without the intervention of any notable discharge*.\* The notions formerly entertained of

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\* “L'agire di molte sostanze sulla fibra viva in senso diametralmente opposto all' azione stimolante, ed il prodursi per esse di quegli effetti immediati sull' eccitamento, che Brown derivava solamente da potenze negative, o da diminuzione di stimoli;—il togliersi per coteste sostanze, (giustamente perciò

these drugs were, that they operated by diminishing or diluting the mass of circulating fluids, in which they were supposed to coincide with the operation of letting blood. The contra-stimulant doctrine attributes their utility to their direct impression on the living solid;—to an action which, when excessive, will extinguish life by an instantaneous exhaustion. In this class of substances must be placed aconite, digitalis, antimonials, and in general all mineral substances, cicuta, the venom of the viper, the laurel water and prussic acid, camboge, tea, coffee, &c. &c. The classes of stimulants and contra-stimulants, according to this theory, stand opposed to each other in their relations to the living fibre, and serve mutually as counterpoisons to each other. Hence, say the advocates for this doctrine, has arisen the abundant use of coffee among the Turks, as an antidote to the opium they employ so largely. Hence also the utility of the vegetable acids as counterpoisons to the same drug.\*

One of the most important facts attached to this doctrine is, that the effect of any given dose of a contra-stimulant drug upon the constitution is inversely as the degree of stimulation; and, consequently, that in inflammatory diseases, the patient not only requires quantities totally unusual in English practice of these remedies, but bears them without any notable effect upon the excretions. In practice, therefore, the measure of the dose is found in the quantity of excitement; and no dose is deemed excessive which does not change the diathesis and induce dangerous debility. Thus in sthenic maladies, the Italians employ aconite, from a grain to a drachm; the kermes minerale, from 8 to 28 grains; emetic tartar, from 8 to 78 grains; the laurel water from 10 to 60 drops; digitalis, from 4 grains to half a drachm; nitre, to half an ounce or an ounce. These are commonly given in divided portions through the course of the twenty-four hours, largely diluted with any simple drink

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chiamate *contro-stimolanti*) gli effetti dello stimolo eccedente, anche senza evacuazione alcuna; ed il prodursi per esse, se vengono fuore, o al di là del bisogno applicate, tali malattie che il solo accrescimento di stimoli può distruggere, &c. &c. &c.—Tommasini, della Nuova Dottrina Med. p. 9.

\* The contra-stimulant effect of lemon-juice is much greater than is commonly supposed. The author, when at Naples, having experienced a slight *coup de soleil*, inducing a bilious vomiting and febrile paroxysm, adopted, under the advice of the natives, the free use of lemonade. Two or three quarts of this fluid taken in the course of the morning, not only removed the disease, but induced a degree of debility sufficiently irksome to require vinous stimulation.

the patient prefers. It is usual to begin with a small quantity, increasing it more or less rapidly, according to the urgency of the symptoms. However extraordinary these facts may appear, there are few English practitioners who have not had opportunities of witnessing similar results from the administration of James's powder. Indeed, so great is the apparent caprice, in the action of this drug on the stomach, and the variety in its evacuant effects, that it would be almost impossible not to suspect an inequality in its preparation, without this key to explain the phenomena. Half a paper, or a paper of the real James's powder, repeated at short intervals, have in some cases of fever appeared to be perfectly inert; neither inducing vomiting nor perspiration, though the tongue has been found moister, and the fever abated on the following morning.\*

The possession of these facts could not fail to have had a most beneficial effect on the practice of physic, in a country whose climate develops inflammation with so much intensity and rapidity; but it has been far more extensively useful in banishing those dangerous errors of practice which had crept in, through the Brunonian doctrine of indirect debility, or of diseases arising in excessive stimulus being curable by still greater stimulation. In inflammatory disease, (no matter whether chronic or acute, no matter whether occurring in a vigorous or a debilitated subject,) excessive stimulation is the cause of malady; and the contra-stimulant remedies afford much more successful methods of cure, than are to be hoped from wine or ether, or any other stimulant. Although the means employed by the contra-stimulant physicians may somewhat differ from our own, yet the indications are generally the same as are recommended by our best authorities. There is a considerable agreement between their views and those of Dr. Blackall, respecting the treatment of dropsy.† In this fatal disease, the contra-stimulant physicians have to boast of much success. It is a malady rendered very common, in Lombardy, by

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\* The author's attention was first attracted to the fact by the practice of a friend, who trusts especially to this remedy in the cure of fevers; notwithstanding the absence of all sensible action from it, except the very important one of the amelioration of the patient.

† "Nel secondo anno, quando era Professore di Patologia e medico nel spedale di Pavia, nell'inverno trattai diverse idropisie steniche o infiammatorie, come sono state chiamate; idropisie, chi sono più frequenti assai di quel che volgarmente si crede. Il mio trattamento fu con quegli stessi rimedj, generosamente adoperati i quali convengono a qualunque altra malattia stenica," &c. &c. &c. Rasori, Storia della Febbre Petecchiale di Genova.

the prevalence of intermittents, generated in the rice-grounds; and it seldom finds its way into the hospitals till more or less extensive disorganization has taken place: yet the mortality in the clinical wards of the Ospedale Maggiore of Milan, during three years (1812, 13, and 14) that the contra-stimulant practice was pursued there by Professor Rasori, did not exceed  $\frac{28}{100}$ .\*

A considerable comparative success has resulted also from the same mode of treating consumption. The deaths in the register amount indeed to  $\frac{63}{100}$ ; but if the disease had been defined with any degree of accuracy in the entries upon the hospital-journals, even this limited success is a matter of comparative triumph.

The treatment of dysentery is chiefly by camboge, given as a contra-stimulant, the dose being gradually increased till it induces diarrhœa, which is considered as a sign of the resolution of inflammation.

With respect to acute diseases, although the contra-stimulant practitioners push their remedies further than was usual under the other Italian systems, it may be doubted whether they do not yet stop short of a proper vigour. The average mortality of the clinical wards in the Ospedale Maggiore, during three years, was less than 11 per cent.; whereas in the other wards, where the older practice was followed, it amounted to 16 per cent. The total number of sick was 4855; that of the deaths, 520. Of these cases, 1302 were pneumonies, consumptions, tabes, dropsy, typhus, and patients received in articulo mortis, of whom died 428. The deaths in pneumonies were  $\frac{22}{100}$ ; and in typhus,  $\frac{12}{100}$ .† That 22 per cent. in pulmonary inflammations should be thought a small proportion, (every allowance being made for the stimulating qualities of the climate,) seems to indicate an inefficiency of practice, at least, as compared with that of England. It is not therefore improbable, that the employment of contra-stimulant drugs may have led to a partial abandonment of blood-letting; or at least to a confidence in smaller effusions of blood than are necessary to cure the disease by a coup-de-main. The action of tartar emetic, however powerful, is slow; and in acute diseases, the first twenty-four hours are most important. It is not therefore impossible, that this valuable time may be lost in the employment of drugs, which, if given to a cure by the abs-

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\* Conciliatore.

† This exceeds the deaths, in the worst epidemics, that have occurred of late years in England.

traction of blood, might, in some cases, have saved lives, not susceptible of rescue, by the same means, when employed at a latter period. From all I could gather, in repeated conversations with Dr. Rasori, he seemed indeed to be sufficiently alive to the importance of blood-letting; and I should make this remark with more hesitation, if that physician did not seem to me to stand alone among his countrymen for boldness and decision. Throughout the south of Italy, wherever I had the opportunity of direct observation, I found the blood taken, in inflammatory disease, less in absolute amount than is now usual among English physicians; and it is taken by smaller and more frequent bleedings.\* It is not therefore improbable, that when the mind has been pre-occupied by another idea, the same error may have occurred in the practice of more efficient physicians.

Of the contra-stimulant theory, the part which seems the least perfectly developed, and concerning which there is the least unanimity, is that which relates to the action of particular drugs; indeed, there is no branch of medical inquiry more contradictory and obscure among the physicians of all sects and all countries: of this, the endless disputes on the action of digitalis, in the medical writings of the British practitioners, afford a striking instance. Among the contra-stimulant remedies are included, by some persons, all the mineral remedies, various bitters, and (*mirabile dictu*) the blistering-fly itself. Rasori totally rejects from the *Materia Medica* the class of diuretics, whose action he considers wholly contra-stimulant. For he says, not only do dropsies, curable by such remedies, likewise get well by the use of other contra-stimulants, not diuretic: but these very diuretic medicines do not provoke the same discharges in other diseases; while, on the other hand, opium and ether produce diuretic effects in dropsies, which arise from a real debility of the living fibre.† From these facts, judging empirically, we must come to the most opposite and contradictory conclusions. But in adopting the contra-stimulant doctrine, the philosophical induction is, that diuretics, and other specifics for dropsy, derive

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\* I remember attending at the opening of a subject, in which there was the most extensive disorganization in the thorax, effusion of lymph and of serum, and almost universal adhesion of the two coats of the pleura. Upon inquiry, I found this patient had been treated by repeated bleedings, not exceeding eight or ten ounces each. Had the whole blood thus evacuated been abstracted at one operation, the life of the patient might perhaps have been saved.

† Rasori, loco citato.



all their efficacy, and their supposed specific action, from their relation to the general diathesis or constitutional disease.

That the blistering-fly belongs to the class of contra-stimulants, rests much upon the fact, that vesicatories, applied to the skin, over certain glandular inflammations, discuss the disease, without producing a vesication of the superjacent cuticle. This is explained in the same way as the inertness of tartar-emetic, which does not produce vomiting, when there is an inflammatory diathesis; the whole force of the drug being expended in subduing the diathesis.

One of the most obscure parts of the new medicine is, that which distinguishes between the irritative and contra-stimulant effects of drugs. Several of the contra-stimulant drugs are, in certain doses, of the most acrid and irritating activity: (not to mention cantharides,) nitre, the bitter purgatives, and most mineral substances, excite, when taken in over-doses, immense irritation, followed by severe and fatal inflammation of the intestinal canal. Upon the subject of irritation, the theorists have run into the nicest distinctions: one asserting the existence of a peculiar diathesis, produced by irritative stimulation; while another denies the existence of such a diathesis, but admits an *universally local affection* \* from irritating agents. Some persons again consider the irritation as a phenomenon *sui generis*—removable only by the removal of the cause; while others hold the first effect of irritation, and of all pain †, to be purely contra-stimulant. In all this logomachy there seems to be more intellectual subtilty than practical observation; and perhaps also no little precipitation in the classification of particular drugs. It is difficult to conceive irritation in any other light than that of direct stimulation, since, when carried to a certain point, it always induces inflammation. That irritants therefore should be at the same time contra-stimulants, is difficult to understand. Whatever gives a violent shock to the nervous system has a temporary power of diminishing, and in some cases of even totally extinguishing, the vital energy. Blows on the stomach, ruptures of ligaments, extensive injuries of any important viscus, are followed by a very marked condition of contra-stimulus; but this peculiar affection of the nervous apparatus has nothing to do with the power which a drug may hold

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\* “ *Affezione universalmente locale.*” Gianini, cited by Tommasini.

† There are peculiar modifications of pain which depress, and are accompanied by a sympathetic affection of the stomach and brain; but, in general, pain quickens the pulse, and prevents sleep.

over the circulation. In all cases of poisoning, where the coats of the stomach are either chemically or physiologically destroyed, this state of contra-stimulus precedes the accession of that inflammatory fever, which accompanies the effort to cast off the slough; but it by no means follows, that the collapse is the direct effect of a specific property in the drug administered.

The contra-stimulant system originating in Lombardy, is principally prevalent in the North of Italy. Its chief supporters are, Professor Rasori at Milan, Professor Borda\* at Pavia, and Professor Tommasini of Parma. The cities of Italy, in proportion to the distance from these foci of proselytism, exhibit more or less of coldness to the new light, and persevere with more or less of indifference in their ancient routine. In Italy, every debatable ground not under the edict of state or religious inquisition, is zealously contested; and the "*nuova dottrina medica Italiana*" has been severely attacked, as being neither new, doctrinal, medical, nor Italian. It has, however, encountered few opponents of eminence, except Spallanzani of Modena, the nephew of the Spallanzani; and Federigo of Venice. With respect to what is merely theoretical, our countrymen, in general, will feel but little interest; but as far as regards practice, it cannot be withheld that zeal, activity, and courage in the administration of remedies seem very closely confined to the physicians of the contra-stimulant school. The Humoralists, Brownists, and advocates of the expectant system, are alike to be classed among the unobserving, or the indolent, in a country where diseases so acute, and remedies so active, are unavailingly offered to their attention. Dr. Clark † has most justly remarked, that the sciences in general, and medicine in particular, are upon a much more respectable footing in Upper Italy, than on the other side of the Apennines; and the former is precisely the territory of the contra-stimulant practitioners. To their bold administration of powerful remedies, the profession in general is largely indebted; more especially for their more philosophic use of digitalis and of antimony, which, notwithstanding all that has been written in England, had not been before rescued

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\* This accomplished gentleman, according to the public papers, has been arrested and conveyed to a fortress in Hungary, on account of some real or imaginary conspiracy against the Austrians.

† In his observations "On the climate and diseases of the South of France and Italy;" a work which exhibits much independence of mind and original remark; and which may be safely consulted by those invalids, who are exiled in search of health.

from a very gross empyricism. The use of laurel-water and the prussic acid is another benefit derived from this source, though it is probable that the French will obtain the chief merit of this application of a most deadly poison to the purposes of medicine. To those English practitioners, who have returned upon the traces of Sydenham, and have disentangled themselves from the learned errors of the last generation, the contra-stimulant writers of Italy will prove highly interesting by the confirmation they afford to views entertained at home, upon separate and independent grounds of reasoning and observation.\*

When the contra-stimulant system has been noticed, there remains but little to be said of the state of medicine in Upper Italy, where the merit of individuals is rendered less available by institutions and by combinations of circumstances, more or less fatal to all national prosperity. One of the principal misfortunes attendant upon the political division of this ill-fated country is, the establishment of petty universities, laden with obscure professors, whose exertions meet with no adequate reward, either in fame or money. These teachers educate gratuitously; and consequently produce a greater supply of practitioners than the demand can employ. This facility of instruction and insufficiency of remuneration operate to invite the lower classes into the career; and if persons of more adequate pecuniary means attach themselves to the profession, and are desirous of seeking education in foreign universities, they are restrained by the restrictive laws, which confer licenses to practise only on those who have graduated at home. Pavia, Padua, and Bologna, which still preserve an astonishing zeal for science, and which afford great facilities for the student, would abundantly suffice for the necessities of the North of Italy; but municipal jealousy operates very generally to exclude the subjects of other states from profiting by their propinquity to these seats of learning. Florence, Siena, and Pisa, Modena, Parma, Genoa, and Turin, have each their schools of medicine; all costing the public large sums, and all more or less unequal to maintain professors of high talent or extensive acquirements.

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\* Exclusive of the above-cited works, the contra-stimulant practice may be seen in Professor Rasori's notes on his translation of Darwin. His remarks on the action of digitalis, on the gutta in dysentery, of nitre in diabetes, and on the cure of inflammatory peripneumonies by tartarized antimony, are printed in the *Annali di Scienze*. For many other authorities, see § 17 of Tommasini's Work.

PAVIA, formerly one of the most celebrated and extensive universities in Europe, had fallen to a low ebb of reputation and efficiency, when the Emperor Joseph restored it to a considerable degree of splendour, by the appointment of professors of European celebrity. The names of Spallanzani, Tissot, Frank, Scarpa, and Volta, while they illustrated its annals, attracted a vast concourse of students; and under the French government, Pavia became the principal school of medicine of the kingdom of Italy. But the fall of the Italian government has already eclipsed the lustre of this university; and the leaden sceptre of Austria will soon plunge it in hopeless ruin\*.

Subjected to the university of Vienna, its institutions have been drawn out, or cut short, till they correspond exactly with that bed of Procrustes; and the professors are appointed at the nomination of the metropolitan faculty. Upon the occurrence of a vacancy, one verbal, and twenty-nine written, questions are put to the candidate, at the suggestion of the professors of Vienna. The Pavian professors examine on the verbal question; and their report, together with the written answers to the other questions, is returned to Germany. The professors of Vienna, upon these returns, decide on the merits of the several candidates, by nominating to the chair. Nothing can be more absurd, ungracious, and ineffectual, than this method. The Comte de Firmian, and the Comte de Wilsek, his successor, who filled the chairs of Pavia with such meritorious professors, contrived to obtain a sufficient knowledge of the eminent men of Europe, to enable them to dispense with such idle and inadequate formulæ; and the Tissots, Franks, and Fontanas were invested with their gowns, without being degraded by a subjection to their intellectual inferiors. The consequence of the existing order of things is, that the professorships fall into the very worst hands. The Italians of any eminence refuse to appear before a foreign tribunal; and the clinical professor, as I was informed, is actually a German, ignorant of the language of those to whom he has to address his lectures. In the mean time, the walls of the college are scrawled over with a fulsome Greek inscription in honour of the Austrian Augustus, who oppresses them; most probably

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\* Lombardy, for ages under the dominion of France, Austria, or of Spain, cannot be said to have enjoyed national institutions, except during the short reign of Napoleon; but never until the present unfortunate epoch of ignorance, absurdity, and crime, was it so completely denationalized, and treated as a conquered province.

erected upon the site of another no less fulsome, (which was obliterated on the fall of Napoleon,) and in its turn, perhaps, destined to yield its place, at no very distant period, to a newer candidate for university immortalities.

In the interior arrangement of the university every thing is regulated upon German models. An useful and philosophical professorship was suppressed, merely because it had not its prototype at Vienna. And a clinical school for teaching medicine to surgeons, or rather for manufacturing surgeon-apothecaries, was created upon the German system, notwithstanding that the local circumstances of Italy produce physicians enough to render this class of persons totally unnecessary.

The total number of students at Pavia does not exceed 800; of whom about half are medical, and the rest attached to the law. The doctorate is obtained at the expiration of five years. The students are examined verbally, and write a thesis. The college is rich in all the accessories of medical study. There is an excellent collection of natural history, and of physical instruments, and one of anatomy. The French, at the period of invasion, respected this public property, and even exchanged some Paris duplicates for others in the Pavian collection. In the natural history, the classes of birds, and of serpents, were rich, and the specimens well preserved. The anatomy collection contains some good preparations of blood-vessels, some comparative anatomy, and a few specimens of disease. There is also a wax-work figure of the absorbents, beautiful, but, as usual, apparently overcharged. Among the *lusus naturæ* were a Cyclops, or rather a triocular monster; the two orbits being covered with skin, and an additional eye in the centre of the *os frontis*—some double-headed fœtuses, &c. But the most interesting preparation was that of the hind-quarters of a lamb, which were brought forth perfectly developed, but without head, thorax, or anterior members. This specimen was brought to Spallanzani, who was assured that it was born living, but that it died on the rupture of the umbilical cord. Spallanzani sent it to Malacarne; and it was opened by Dr. Rasori, then a student. The nerves commenced at the *cauda equina*; they were perfect; and so were the muscles, which were plump, and surrounded by fat. The abdominal and pectoral viscera were equally wanting, except a small portion of the great intestines. The *arteria umbilicalis* communicated with the aorta, at the division of the iliac arteries. This preparation was then valuable, as deciding the question respecting the origin of nerves, by proving that in every part the nerves are nourished by their own

vessels. Nor does it afford less satisfactory evidence, respecting the great questions of nervous influence, which actually occupy the talents of our most profound physiologists. During the dissection of this subject there was much conversation between Spallanzani and Malacarne; and the latter professor was much scandalized by Spallanzani's sceptical inquiry into the seat of the soul in such an animal.

Scarpa and Volta are all that remain of the knot of philosophers brought together in the last age: both are far advanced in life, and hold *emeritus* situations; the one being director of the faculty of philosophy, and the other of that of medicine.

THE UNIVERSITY OF PADUA is at present in good repute, and its students have considerably increased in number. The doctorate is obtained by five years study; and the courses are well arranged. Notwithstanding the ancient celebrity of this school of medicine, its connexion with English medicine, and the more recent interest acquired through the reputation of Morgagni, I was compelled by the necessities of my journey to confine myself to a very cursory view of its *locale*. From some conversation I had with one of the professors, it appears that the contra-stimulant doctrines prevail, but without that enthusiasm which exists respecting them in Lombardy. The interference of Austria, in the affairs of the university, was a matter of severe animadversion here as in Pavia, among those who dared give vent to their feelings. It is submitted in the same way to the university of Vienna; and the intrusion of German professors excites great disgust.

THE UNIVERSITY OF GENOA grants medical degrees, of which there are three grades—bachelor, licentiate, and doctor. The course for the doctorate is of five years. Each faculty has a college of twelve doctors, who examine the candidates. Clinical and anatomical lectures are given in the great hospital of the city, and there are seven medical chairs in the university. This little establishment has suffered much by the last revolution: five of its most distinguished professors having been ejected for liberalism; and nearly two-thirds of the pupils have consequently retired. The funds likewise assigned, at the suppression of convents, to the use of the university, have been restored to the original foundations by the King of Sardinia, and its expenses are charged on the octroi, or duty on provisions.

BOLOGNA, though politically united to the Papal territories, is both geographically and scientifically connected with Upper Italy. It was, under the French regime, one of the three universities of the kingdom of Italy, and still

maintains its relation to that kingdom, by being the principal focus of the contra-stimulant system; owing to the zeal of Professor Tommasini, the most active apostle of this medical creed. The Bolognese are an awakened and high-spirited people, and they struggle hard to maintain for their university the reputation it enjoyed in that bright epoch of Italian glory, when their little Republic secured to itself the appropriate epithet of "*the learned*." In this university too, in later times as formerly, the spirit of speculative research is closely united to the love of liberty; and the talismanic "*Libertas*," which still floats on the banner of Bologna, though a cruel mockery of its actual political condition, is not ill adapted to express the interior sentiment that is ardently cherished. The exterior of Bologna, in its imposing architecture and long and lofty arcades, well represents the Gothic cumbrousness and darkness of the middle ages; but within its walls reside many spirits raised to a perfect level with the illumination of their own times, uniting the profoundest philosophy with the greatest simplicity, and cherishing within the privacy of their domestic circle those public virtues, which in the present epoch of royal re-action are every where alike hated, persecuted, and *feared*. With these dispositions in the city, it will not be deemed surprising that its university experienced considerable changes upon the Restoration of the Pope. The Bolognese are, indeed, regarded with a peculiar jealousy by the Papal government, which an instinctive feeling of its own debility directs especially against those most capable of influencing public opinion. Amongst the persons who were cited to me for their ability while employed under the French regime, and who had been dismissed at the Restoration, were Gambari, professor of criminal jurisprudence; Prandi, professor of natural law; Rossi, civilian; Baciace, a physician; Giordani, pro-secretary of the Academy of Fine Arts; and Professor Costa.

At present the number of students at Bologna does not exceed two hundred, owing to the resurrection of the little universities of the little independent States. This dictation of the place of study becomes eminently ludicrous in these little governments, from the extreme imperfection which necessarily belongs to such feeble and sickly nutriment as can be afforded by their half-starved alma-maters; but it ill becomes an Englishman to laugh at the absurdity, since the principle exists in some vigour at home. With us too, as in Italy, it acts, *pro modulo suo*, to exclude merit, and grant monopoly to mediocrity, wherever it is not borne down and trodden under foot by popular opinion.

The course for the doctorate in Bologna is of four years; and the progress is through bachelor and regent, each of which degrees are taken at a year's distance from the other: for liberty to practise, two other years of attendance upon chemical lectures are required. The license to practise is granted by a board of thirteen persons, chosen from among the practitioners of the town; of whom five at least examine the candidate publicly, in every branch of learning connected with the science.

During the first year's attendance on the clinical course, the student is a simple spectator; in the second, he has a patient assigned to him, in rotation, so arranged as that in the course of the year he may superintend the treatment of all the principal diseases. The physician requires him to examine his patient in his presence, to state the condition of the pulse, and to name the malady. In this if he is mistaken, another student is consulted. He is then to propose the means of cure, the intentions to which they are directed, the nature of the drugs, their pharmaceutic preparation, and the effects which are to be expected from them. He likewise makes a daily report of the events which have occurred in the last four-and-twenty hours. This course of proceeding forms the most complete system of instruction which I have ever seen proposed, and much superior to that usually pursued in our hospitals. But as the hospital appointments in London continue to be held by the first practitioners up to their perfect superannuation, their private business will not afford them the time necessary for such minute investigations.

At present, however, the medical school of Bologna is less flourishing than that of Pavia. The disadvantageous position of the city, (situated at the furthest extremity of the Papal dominions, and shut out from the students of Upper Italy, by the exclusive laws of the Austrian government,) and the benumbing influence of the Church, (which drives away professors of ability and cramps their energies with its inquisitorial interference,) equally tend to decrease the number of students. The school of law, formerly of such immense repute, suffers, in the same manner, a diminution of its followers, and of its fame; and is actually undistinguished by any professor of great eminence.

The education of surgeons very nearly resembles that of physicians; and in Bologna, as wherever else the French have had influence, they graduate in surgery. Here, as elsewhere, they practise medicine whenever they can, and if there is any police regulation for governing the practice of the two professions, it is a perfect dead letter.

The public library, which forms part of the magnificent and noble building



of the Institute, occupies several elegant rooms. It differs from most Italian collections of this description, in containing many modern works, which are purchased under the direction of Mezzofante, the celebrated linguist, and librarian of this establishment. Amongst other English works, I noticed our Royal and Linnean Transactions, Tilloch's Magazine, Leach's Crustaceous Families. There were also the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, and many other modern French works.

The natural history collection, in the same building, is rich in mineralogy and extraneous fossils. Amongst the latter, the most remarkable is a fossil bird, very perfect, brought from Montmartre. This collection (commenced by Aldrovandus) owes much to the liberality of the French government, which assigned funds for the purchase of rare specimens—perhaps in return for the Herbarium of Aldrovandus, forcibly transferred to Paris, together with about two hundred manuscripts and forty pictures. This sort of robbery is the more to be deplored, as nearly its whole account lies in the gratification of national vanity, and but little real benefit results from it to science. But on the other hand it should be remembered, that the French are the only conquerors who have given even a slight attention to the interest of the conquered, and have found leisure, amidst fiscal rapacities and jealous espionage, to spread the light of science in their subjected provinces.

The anatomical collection is remarkable for its fine wax-work preparations, inferior perhaps to those of Florence, though the obstetric department is more considerable. Benoit XIV. commenced this part of the collection, by purchasing the specimens which Professor Galli had caused to be made for the illustration of his course. Madame Manzolini made a considerable addition by models, which she constructed between 1750-58; but the most accurate and perfect specimens are those more recently modelled under the direction of Mondini. The Institute contains also chemical and natural philosophy departments, besides an observatory, collections for the fine arts, &c. &c.; and it is unquestionably to be placed among the most splendid and comprehensive scientific establishments of the civilized world.

ON crossing the Apennines every step leads further from the light of science. In the states of Florence there are two universities: Pisa, at present illustrated by the presence of Professor Vacca; and Siena. The doctorate is granted, in both, at the end of four years; but two additional years are required for clinical study; after which the candidate is examined for license to practise, before a board of twelve physicians, twelve surgeons, and

as many apothecaries, elected from the most approved practitioners of Florence, of twelve years standing. Strangers, however, who settle in Florence, are not subjected to any inconvenience for practising without a license. In point of fact, the two branches of surgery and physic are preserved, in practice, tolerably distinct.

At Florence there is likewise a regular school of medicine and of surgery attached to the hospital of Santa Maria Maggiore; but, as the appointments are very mean, the professors are not of the first class.

There is at Florence a somewhat singular branch of medical police, consisting of a physician and a surgeon fiscal, who are appointed for the examination of cases of suicide, poison, and other medico-legal questions.\*

As far as my information extends, Florence, at the present moment, is not possessed of any medical men of decided eminence. The death of Mascagni (whose anatomical works are now publishing by his executors) has created a vacancy, which is said to be inadequately filled by his successor. The fervour of the contra-stimulant contest is little felt in this city; the practitioners are chiefly Brownists and Humoralists. In general the Florence physicians wish to pass for eclectics in medical philosophy; but it is probable that their opinions result rather from indifference, or want of occasion for forming decided notions, than from a rational and grounded scepticism: as far at least as a very limited acquaintance can decide, the same languor, in which the mild and soporific despotism of the government has cradled all other enquiries, extends also over the profession of medicine. Against such institutions it is in vain to contend: they shed their baleful influence alike over the talented and the feeble-minded; so that while the lower classes are oppressed, the higher are worse served, less secure in health, in property, and in person; less accommodated with the comforts and enjoyments of life, than they would be under a freer dispensation and a more equitable system.

Attached to the hospital of Santa Maria, in Florence, are the anatomical schools, which were the theatre of Mascagni's labours: the collection is by no means commensurate with the celebrity of Mascagni's† name, and had

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\* Qui et decimâ quâque die meretrices, quæ in civitate quæstum corpore faciunt, de salute interrogant. Huicce inquisitioni interesse nolentes carcere coercent; ægras in nosodochium, ære proprio curandas, relegant.

† A splendid edition of Mascagni's Works, in folio, is in course of publication at Florence.

been very much neglected. At present it is under the care of Dr. Lippi, who has arranged the subjects with great method and neatness. The most striking portion of this collection consists of injections, of considerable minuteness, and a rich series of pathological osteology. Among the last, I noticed the skeleton of a man bent double by age, and the exostosis of the vertebræ; which were firmly soldered together; various curvatures of the spine, and a specimen of *mollities ossium*, in which the bones were bent in angles so acute, as to seem incompatible with the integrity of the viscera. Here is also the skeleton of a man seven feet high; the bones proportionately strong, but the omoplate worn thin, and perforated by the muscles, indicating a development of the muscular system not common in men above the usual standard. A favourite preparation is that of the entire skin stuffed, with the superficial lymphatics and blood-vessels injected. It is impossible to conceive any thing more frightfully monstrous than these distorted figures; nor do they answer any useful purpose, commensurate with the trouble of preparing them.

BUT the most singular exhibition of Florence is THE COLLECTION OF WAX-WORK anatomical models, which forms part of the *Cabinet de Physique*. The art of wax-work representation commenced in those votive offerings which it is the practice of Italy to append to the shrines of the Thaumaturgic Saint, whose miracle has restored health to the grateful votary. It was first applied to the purposes of anatomy by Ludovigo Gigoli, and afterwards by Tumnio, a Sicilian in the pay of Cosimo the Third. The great and extensive collection, as it at present exists, was conceived by Fontana, who came to Florence at the invitation of Leopold. It is distributed through fifteen chambers, in which are preparations in every possible variety, coloured with a delicacy and vivacity which perfectly resemble nature. Four chambers contain the muscular system; the fifth is filled with preparations of the blood-vessels; sixth with the organs of sense; seventh, ligaments; eighth contains a female figure, with the viscera *in situ*, but so disposed as to take to pieces; also demonstrations of the gravid uterus, and fœtuses of all possible ages. No. 9 contains the viscera of the thorax and abdomen, and some preparations of the brain. There is one model of the lungs *in situ*, viewed from behind, like the upper part of Sandifort's seventh plate of his *Tabulæ Anatomice*. No. 10 contains a very copious collection of various dissections of the nervous system, larger than life. In the centre of the chamber is a whole-length figure, shewing the superficial veins, arteries, and absorbents. This

room is perhaps the most valuable of all, as the models exhibit parts difficult to prepare, and more difficult to preserve; and as the colours are those of nature, before the body has undergone change, they are more *tranchant*, and the forms consequently more distinguishable. No. 11 contains the deeper-seated vessels, with preparations, shewing the origin of the nerves, and the connexions of the sympathetic system. No. 12 has a whole-length figure of the deep-seated lymphatics, preparations of the nerves of the medulla spinalis. No. 13 contains a whole-length figure of veins, with preparations of different nerves. -No. 14, a whole-length arterial system, with nine models of different nerves. No. 15 contains the commencement of a collection of comparative anatomy. The most remarkable models in this room are a dissection of the leech, another of the lobster, a third shewing the progress of the chicken *in ovo*, the female system of reproduction of birds, with the progress of the egg through the oviducts demonstrated on the hen, a beautiful dissection of the sepia, and a demonstration of the different stages of the silkworm's existence (by Susini).

The expense of this superb collection must be immense. In general the preparations are copied with great fidelity; but in those of the blood-vessels and nerves, it is to be apprehended that the vanity of minute injection may have tempted the modeller to compile from several different subjects, thus forming a sort of *beau idéal*, rather than a portrait of nature. In a collection so extensive, the value of the individual specimens must be very different. The myology, and the anatomy of the brain, struck me as being the best; and the whole-length vascular and nervous preparations as the least to be depended upon. The preparations are distributed in glass cases round the walls; the whole-lengths being in the middle of the rooms. Round the walls, and just over each case, are drawings corresponding to the models, with references to the different parts of each demonstration.

The wax-work collection forms but a small part of the contents of the museum, which was commenced by the Grand Dukes with the purchase of the collections of Steno and Rumphius. It was afterwards re-founded by Leopold, who united all the objects under one roof; for which purpose he bought the Casa Torrigiani. He at the same time established the wax-work collection, the extensive cabinet of the three kingdoms of nature, a botanic garden, a cabinet of instruments, a laboratory, an observatory, and a scientific library. The collection of philosophical instruments occupies eight chambers, and contains Galileo's telescope, with which he discovered the spots in

the sun; and the lens used by the *Accademia del Cimento* for burning diamonds, an experiment lately verified on the spot by Sir H. Davy.

The natural history is spread through many apartments, and embraces a most splendid collection in every branch of the science; including Rumphius's cabinet of shells, and the more recent collections of Giuseppe Raddi, who, on occasion of the marriage of an Austrian Archduchess with the Hereditary Prince of Portugal, was sent to the Brazils for the express purpose of enriching the museum. After a very short absence, he returned laden with a considerable number of plants which had been wanting in the ample herbarium of the Lyceo, a superb collection of insects, a few of the rarest quadrupeds and birds, more fish, and a large number of reptiles, together with a very complete series of seed and fruits, and a selection of the most important minerals found in the vicinity of Rio Janeiro. The whole of these have been deposited in good order in the museum; and considering the shortness of his residence, the difficulties of language, and of the natural face of the country, the collection reflects the greatest credit on the zeal, industry, and enterprise of the ingenious voyager.

There are three chambers of botanical preparations, containing wax-work models of plants difficult to preserve, that are singularly beautiful, and an immense collection of mineralogy, besides a rather paltry collection of South Sea utensils; and the extraordinary and disgusting models of putridity, called the plagues of Florence.

This extensive museum was dedicated to the service of public instruction by Maria Louisa, Queen Regent of Etruria, in 1807, under the denomination of the Lyceum. For this purpose she instituted the following professorships:

Astronomy, professed by.....	L'Abate DI VECCHI.
Experimental Philosophy .....	L'Abate BABBINI.
Comparative Anatomy.....	FILIPPO UCCELLI.
Chemistry .....	GAZZERI.
Botany .....	OTTAR TARGIONI.
Zoology and Mineralogy.....	FILIPPO NESTI.
And an Intendant of the Wax-work Models, who should prepare specimens for the artist to copy..	REGOLO LIPPI.

A very considerable degree of activity had been given to this establishment, and the lectures were regularly and numerously attended, when, upon the restoration of the Grand Duke, and before his arrival at Florence, the professors

were silenced in the midst of their course by the Prince Rospigliosi, the minister, and a worthy servant of the House of Austria. This measure, at once so unpopular and absurd, was afterwards in part abandoned; the salaries of the professors being restored, and their services annexed to the university of Siena, or to the establishment of Sta. Maria. To complete this picture of royal folly, it remains to be stated that Susini, the able modeller of the wax-work, had received during the Revolution, an increase of salary amounting to seventy Francisconi (not £.18) in consideration of his long services. This addition was suppressed on the Restoration; and the circumstance so seized on the imagination of the unfortunate man, that he sickened, and having in a fit of delirium risen from his bed, and destroyed all his papers and memoranda of experiments, he died a victim to ultra-fanaticism and aristocratic ignorance.

CONCERNING the state of medicine in the PAPAL STATES, there is little to be added to what has already been said of BOLOGNA. THE SAPIENZA, or University of Rome, grants medical degrees; and there is a school of medicine subordinate to it in the Hospital dello Spirito Santo. In this last establishment there is a foundation for about sixty students of medicine, who are fed and housed during their gratuitous attendance at the medical school. There are also clinical professors of medicine and surgery. After two years' attendance to the lectures of the Sapienza, the candidates for the doctorate are examined. After this a further time is expended in following the practice of the hospital; there is then a second examination on points of practice, and a thesis is written, which may be composed either in Latin, French, or Italian. The student, if approved, receives matriculation, which is a license to practise. In the hospital dello Spirito Santo also is an anatomical establishment, consisting of a dissecting-room, which is airy and well-contrived, a small collection of preparations, and still smaller museum of natural history; there is also a series of wax models illustrating the different possible presentations of the fœtus. In this hospital is preserved the library of the celebrated Lancisi, left to the establishment by him, together with certain funds, for the purchase of books. I did not, however, observe many works of value of our own times.

IN NAPLES there is an university which grants the doctor's degree after four or five years' study and examinations; and this degree suffices, without further license, to practise. Connected with the university is a school of medicine, established in the hospital for acute diseases, in which the course

of instruction is modelled on that of the French schools. Here also is a school of midwifery. There are other medical schools in the provinces; but that of Naples is the most considerable. The opinions of the Neapolitan physicians, I was told, are much divided upon points of theory; but I could not learn that either in Naples or in Rome, there was much scientific zeal; nor, with the exception of Drs. Morichini, and De Matthæis of Rome, did I hear the name of any physician, in either State, of extensive celebrity. In point of general science, Naples is by no means to be placed on the low level of Rome. Many circumstances, indeed, combine to give an extraordinary degree of activity to the culture of the mind in this city. The Neapolitans are naturally an awakened and inquiring people. The hostility of the court of Rome to Neapolitan independence has shaken the blind credulity of the upper classes, and disposed them to encourage and to pursue learning as a means of diminishing bigotry. The peculiarities also of their locality, between the buried treasures of Roman art and the ever-varying phenomena of the burning mountain, forcibly direct the attention of the citizens to antiquities and to natural history. If to this be added, the influence of the French domination, and the facility of obtaining good books, it will be easy to imagine that Naples is a real focus of light to the rest of Italy. In this last respect, although the censure was severe against works printed in Naples, it was remarkably lenient in the department of importation, and the booksellers' shops teemed with the best European works, and even with the latest scientific and literary productions of the French press.

In the magnificent apartments of the Studio I attended the sittings of the ACADEMY OF SCIENCE, which were conducted in the same way as in the Institute of Paris. The discussion was animated, and the number of members very considerable; and of these there were but few, who were not pointed out to me as distinguished by some title to public estimation. It was here that I had the pleasure of being introduced to the Cavaliere Melchior Delfico, sometime Minister of the Interior, whose writings, if in a language more generally diffused than the Italian, would place him among the most spirited and independent inquirers of the age. He has made himself well acquainted with the leading facts of physiology, as a means of studying to greater advantage the moral and social nature of the species, and for ascertaining the physical basis of those abstract notions which have most divided philosophers. His "*Ricerche su la sensibilità imitativa*," a quarto of about one hundred pages, abounds in philosophical views of society and laws; and his

book on the Roman jurisprudence, in which he shews the imperfection, vices, and barbarity of that far-famed system of legal obscurity and injustice, is perhaps the most original work extant on the subject. Monsieur Delfico is likewise author of a History of the Republic of St. Marino, of which State he is a citizen; and, by a singular coincidence he has published a volume on the *inutility of history*, in which amidst some apparent and perhaps real paradox, there are to be found many important and disregarded truths. Signore Delfico is far advanced in life; but he is eminently possessed of that cheerfulness and sociable cast of mind, which distinguishes the simple and unpretending philosopher in all countries. His zeal for science and his love of liberty are still unabated. To his persevering kindness we were indebted for many advantages during our stay at Naples, and his expression of friendship and regret at our departure, will dwell in our memory among the most flattering and pleasing recollections of that delightful residence.

THE HOSPITALS of Italy are deservedly esteemed, for the general richness of their endowments, and for the splendour of their architecture, in which they are much superior to the similar establishments of other countries. The bent of the national genius towards the erection of spacious and imposing edifices, would naturally have extended from the cloister to the hospital; and the heat of the climate, which demands a free circulation of air, and houses thinly inhabited, of necessity must have contributed to the same result. Add to these considerations, that the Italians have very universally manifested a bias towards this mode of charity, and that the first families of the country have occupied themselves in the details of hospital-establishments, while different religious orders have devoted their labours to the same useful end; and much must naturally be expected from the operation of so many causes. The frequency of medical schools in the larger hospitals must likewise operate favourably upon their cleanliness, comfort, and good order; and the spirit of military exactness, which the French contrived to infuse into all the civil departments of the States where they maintained a protracted dominion, gave a still greater activity to these institutions. The general condition of the hospitals of Italy is creditable to the physicians and superintendants; though perhaps they fall short of that perfection which we are induced to anticipate from the coincidence of so many favourable circumstances. To this general assertion there is one dreadful and deplorable exception, in the case of the hospitals for the reception of lunatics. With the single reservation in favour of the new institution, at a short distance from Naples, I neither



saw nor heard of a single establishment of this nature, in which there was not some glaring defect in the treatment; and in very many, the total neglect of all cleanliness, comfort, or attention to the relief of the malady, was disgusting and flagrant. Of the "Casa de' Pazzi" at Turin, Dr. Clark\* of Rome has drawn a picture too horrible almost for belief; but I must add, that my impressions of this establishment were precisely his own. Chains, filth, nakedness, the most dreadful and incessant howlings, rage and despair, made up a sum of human wretchedness too terrible to contemplate; and I was informed by a physician, who was well acquainted with the place, that an annual, indiscriminate bleeding, in the spring of the year, embraced the whole curative exertions of the establishment.

THE HOSPITAL OF ST. JOHN AT TURIN, on the contrary, is spacious and well arranged. It is the great receptacle of all the sick of the city, and is built in the form of a Greek cross: it contains four hundred and sixty beds for patients of all countries. There are likewise some beds, supported by special foundations, for patients labouring under chronic and incurable maladies, who are lodged or dieted as in a workhouse, and enjoy an unlimited permission to go out at stated hours. The beds are of iron, and are placed at a reasonable distance from each other: the wards were free from any close or unpleasant smell. A small but highly ornamented and elegant Church communicates by its gallery with the female wards, which are in the first-floor, and, by its area, with the men's wards in the *Rez de Chaussée*, so that the sexes attend service without communication with each other.

The kitchen and apothecaries-shop correspond with the general magnificence of the building. In the latter are machines for communicating directly between the kitchen and the wards, and distributing the diet with promptitude and facility. There is likewise, under the same roof, a large bakehouse, which supplies with bread all the different charitable institutions of the city. The bread is of fine wheat, and of an excellent quality. A good deal of it is drawn out into little thin rods of considerable length—a custom peculiar, I believe, to Turin. These are crisp, light, and well baked; and therefore, probably, of easier digestion than when made in the usual form.

LA CHARITE' is rather a workhouse and house of industry than an hospital,

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\* Medical Notes on the Climate, &c. of France, Italy, and Switzerland.

though a few patients are taken into the infirmary from the town. The principal inmates are aged persons and children, who are employed in weaving and spinning. This establishment, notwithstanding its numerous busts of benefactors, has an air of great poverty. The bed-rooms were crowded to excess, the rooms generally far from clean, and the air often disgustingly impure.

Before the Revolution, there were fifteen charitable institutions in Turin. When the French entered the city, they found three thousand two hundred persons dispersed through these charities, without even a provision for the day's food. In the war which preceded the downfall of the Royal dynasty, the Government had seized the property of the hospitals, and had substituted *monti*, a sort of funded security, or *bons*, upon itself; while the individuals, who usually assisted the establishments by voluntary donations, oppressed by taxation, and disgusted with this violent measure, had very generally abstained from continuing their subscriptions. The charities, in consequence, became deeply indebted. Immediately on the arrival of the French, who are so unjustly calumniated for having appropriated the funds of public charities in Italy, they proceeded, under the direction of General Jourdan, to form a commission of administration for the civil hospitals of Piedmont; for the purpose of putting them upon that comfortable and efficient footing, which distinguishes the charitable institutions of France. They removed the Hospice de Maternité from the spot where it had previously subsisted, and where, from the badness of the ventilation, a very large portion of the infants perished, into a remote and an airy monastery, the Convent of St. Croix, and established there a school of midwifery. They united the hospitals of St. John with that of St. Maurice and St. Lazare, effecting a most salutary reform in the administration respecting the beds appropriated by distinct foundations to incurables; which, being much too numerous, were frequently employed for purposes very different from those of their destination. They assigned to these united establishments landed-property, which had devolved to the Government, in the place of the precarious *monti*; and they granted ten per cent. upon the octrois, or duties paid on provisions entering the city. The zeal of this commission was persevering; and the consequence was, that the hospitals were diligently attended, and the sick (placed in clean well-ventilated buildings, and well fed) had every chance of recovery, which their circumstances admitted. The proceedings of the commission fill a rather thick quarto

volume. Besides the improvements above stated, the commission established an hospital of incurables; thereby relieving La Charité from this branch of service, and separating the healthy old persons, and the children, from the sick. They established likewise a system of manufacture among the poor, and a small hospital for the purposes of vaccination. Five hundred poor, in the greatest state of indigence, were taken from the streets, and provided for;—a sufficient number of students in surgery were procured, to administer to the necessities of the sick: *bureaux de bienfaisance*, for relieving the poor and the sick in their own houses, were erected in the same way as in Paris. All this was effected amidst every sort of fiscal embarrassment, and the most urgent distress. The expenses of the year were 1,191,313 livres.

At GENOA, the HOSPITAL PAMMATONE contains from one thousand to one thousand two hundred beds. It is a noble and spacious building: the interior is tolerably well ventilated, clean, and comfortable; though it is said to be now less so than formerly. The director, Signor Carega, is a nobleman who has devoted himself to the care of this charity. His appearance bespoke the character which would lead to this species of religious sacrifice. In this hospital flourished some time Santa Caterina di Genova; and a little apartment, ornamented with frescos, is still shewn as her abode. The inscriptions, “*Amor mio non più di peccati*,” “*amor mio non più di mondo*,” shew her to have been of that class of enthusiasts, whose fanaticism is a real malady, or displacement of the passions. Through the hospital are distributed a profusion of altars; and there is a wooden statue of St. Francis with his stigmata, not deficient in merit. The anatomy-school, which is a dependence on the university, was shut, when I visited the establishment. The prevailing diseases were dysentery and pulmonary complaints. Fevers were by no means prevalent; and the petechial epidemic, that committed such ravages during the siege, seems to have disappeared with its causes. The antiphlogistic mode of treatment, in febrile diseases, is most usually adopted. There is in this hospital a lying-in department: the foundlings kept there were numerous; and the infants, as usual on the continent, were abominably swathed.

THE HOSPITAL OF INCURABLES, less elegant and less clean, contains about six hundred and fifty beds. That part which was assigned to the insane, may be characterized as resembling the similar establishments at Milan and Turin, though more cleanly than either. This hospital is attended by

Capuchins, who were neat in their persons, and of gentlemanly address; and seemed to perform their functions with zeal and attention.

In Genoa, the practice of medicine is, as is usual in many parts of Italy, subjected to a board, termed the *Proto-medicato*. Surgeons practise indifferently in both branches; and a fine of twelve hundred francs, for practising without a license, is not, as far as I could discover, now levied upon the delinquents.

THE OSPEDALE MAGGIORE, at MILAN, is a magnificent edifice, founded in 1466 by Franc. Sforza, and Blanche Marie Visconti, his wife. The façade, which is of brick, is Gothic. The building is divided by several spacious courts, surrounded by open corridors, or arcades highly ornamented, and supported on pillars of polished granite. The church though small, is singularly beautiful: it is a Greek cross, formed of four arches supported on granite pillars. There is in it a picture of the Annunciation, by Guercino. All the offices correspond in extent, and in apparent disregard to expense. The apothecaries' shop was in excellent order, and well stored with drugs. The chemicals, prepared at home, were of the very first quality. There is a spacious and airy room for dissections, which are freely practised, in all cases, where the nature of the disease renders an examination *post mortem* desirable. The accommodation in this hospital will admit one thousand patients, and several of the wards are empty, for want of applicants. The number of attendant physicians is ten. The rooms are lofty and spacious, and perfectly free from smell. The bedsteads are of iron, and the linen clean. The funds assigned for the maintenance of this establishment, from the consolidation of many smaller hospitals, are abundant: but they have been badly managed, having been confided to a committee of noblemen, who, either by inattention or intrigue, have suffered great dilapidations to take place. Napoleon, in return for services performed to his sick and wounded soldiers, enriched the Ospedale Maggiore with funds proceeding from the suppressed Helvetic college of priests. The Swiss cantons are at present striving to restore those useless drones at the expense of the hospital; and they will probably succeed.

Among the beneficent institutions of Milan, should be counted the MAISON DE FORCE, or Penitentiary; one of the cleanest and best-arranged prisons in Europe. The work-shops, halls, and infirmaries are sufficiently large and well ventilated; the solitary cells are dry and wholesome. The bed-chambers are nine feet long and eight wide, with a window, three feet by two; and they

communicate with a great hall, in which is an altar for public worship. These chambers are regularly swept and washed; and the house is white-washed once a year, or oftener if required. The result of this scrupulous care is, that the deaths do not annually exceed four per cent. The men, the women, and youths, have distinct and separate wards. The house holds four hundred males, and fifty females. The men's side is always full; the females rarely so. The number of boys has never been less than sixteen. At the time of my visit there were twenty-two. Their offences were chiefly picking pockets. On admission, the prisoners are bathed, their hair is cut, and they receive a prison-dress. They labour at spinning, carding, and weaving. The produce of their work was formerly divided into three portions; one of these was assigned to the maintenance of the house, another for the immediate benefit of the prisoner, and the third laid by as a store, to be given him when discharged from prison. A measure so philosophical, and so admirably calculated for reclaiming the vicious, could not be appreciated by the Austrian government. Since the Restoration, therefore, the whole sum is taken from the prisoners, because the same is the case in the other prisons of the empire. By this means, the whole utility of the institution is destroyed: the men work carelessly, and neither acquire a taste for labour, nor skill to render it available; while the want of a little ready money when they return to the world, must too frequently necessitate the committing of new crimes. These are the little traits that give an insight into the genius which animates the Austrian councils, and exhibit to the startled imagination the wide extent of mischief inflicted upon humanity by the assignment of the extensive and populous regions of Italy to a government inferior in civilization to its age, and swayed by maxims the most hostile to national prosperity. Food is distributed to the prisoners once only in the twenty-four hours. It consists of a soup of rice and pot-herbs, seasoned with thirty ounces of bacon: to this are added thirty ounces of bread, made of three parts Turkish grain and one rye. The daily expense, including guards and attendants, amounts to 71 cents per head, (about seven pence). The use of spirits is forbidden, and that of wine very closely restricted. The chain was formerly appropriated to such persons as were condemned to the "*carcere duro*." At present, all the prisoners are chained (probably because the same is the case at Vienna). The discipline in general is mild and moderate, and the prisoner is corrected, without being rendered vile in his own estimation. Some of the services of the house are performed even by the prisoners themselves; when their conduct renders them

trust-worthy in the eyes of their superiors. No apology will be deemed necessary for these details, as being misplaced; for the existence of such an establishment unquestionably should be reckoned among the data for judging of the medical information to be found in a state: the principal lights which have fallen upon the internal œconomy of nations have proceeded from medicine, and its associated branches of natural science; and where the latter are low, the former will generally be found undeveloped and imperfect.

The HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE is situated at a short distance from Milan, in a marshy and not very wholesome position. It is a large building, better conducted in point of cleanliness than that of Turin, but equally without medical treatment, or selection and arrangement of cases. The din and confusion in some of the wards, where the most furious were chained to their beds in large numbers, realized our most horrible notions of a pandemonium. There can be little doubt that this must greatly contribute to strengthen the insane ideas, and to impede any natural tendency to recovery.

In this hospital I saw several cases of pellagra, an endemic disease of the Alps, commencing with an eruption about the smaller joints, which degenerates into gangrene, and occasions a separation of the bones. It seems particularly to attack the insane, as the number of patients affected by it was considerable. It terminates fatally at the end of some months. This disease is a consequence of diminished powers, or imperfect developement of living energy, and seems connected in its causes with the Cretinism and Goitre so common in Alpine regions.

At PAVIA the hospital, though small, was very well arranged. It is not supplied with patients, on a scale adequate to the purposes of a great school of medicine; but, as it was the theatre of Scarpa's observations, it cannot be destitute of interest, even in this point of view. At present it is well attended by the students, who follow the practice of Professor Borda, one of the principal supporters of the contra-stimulant theory. The Professor had the kindness to conduct me through his wards, and to point out such cases as best illustrated his practice.

At BOLOGNA there formerly existed two congregations, called "*Di Vita*" and "*Di Morte*," which founded hospitals for the sick. These hospitals are now consolidated under the name of "*Ospedale di Vita*." The number of beds are five hundred. They were, however, too closely placed to each other, and the ventilation was not so good as in the other hospitals of Upper Italy. Ano-

ther grievous defect in this establishment, is the want of a chamber for operations. I saw one performed by Dr. Venturoli, in the midst of the patients, who must have suffered severely from the cries of the subject. There is at Bologna also, a small clinical hospital, containing fifty beds, divided between the surgeon and physician. The French did not at all interfere with the funds of the hospitals of Bologna, though the number of military sent in for cure, was attended with a certain expense to them, which was said to have occasioned temporary embarrassment.

At FLORENCE, the hospital of SANTA MARIA MAGGIORE, is said to contain two thousand beds. The medical and chirurgical patients are in separate wards. There were also small apartments, appropriated to midwifery, and others for diseases of the eyes. In the latter, light was wholly excluded; but this advantage appeared to me to be dearly purchased by the deficient ventilation it occasioned. The heat was oppressive, and the smell abundantly indicated that the perspiration of the sick was accumulated, and stagnated in the chamber. Through the whole of this establishment the beds were too close. The wards in general were lofty, but some of them narrow, and the ventilation was for the most part not sufficiently attended to. There are sixteen physicians attached to this establishment, of whom two are clinical professors. They perform their functions eight at a time for the alternate six months. There were twelve surgeons.

The hospital of Santa Maria, in the time of Leopold, was richly endowed; but, by the mal-administration of a certain Marquis Covoni, under the reign of Ferdinand the Third, a system of dilapidation commenced, which terminated in absolute ruin. To meet the difficulties thus created, the Government assigned to the use of the hospital, the produce of certain duties upon salt, lotteries, &c. These, at the epoch of the Revolution, failing, the hospital was again thrown into distress; but the French, as at Turin, established a commission for ascertaining its condition and its necessities; and the Government annually granted such sums as were actually requisite. Under the restored government the same system continues.

There is at Florence likewise a noble and superb edifice, for the confinement of insane persons. It was with great regret that I quitted that capital, without having inspected the establishment. I was assured, however, that it was well managed; but that no system of treatment, either moral or medical, was in activity for the cure of the patients.

THE hospital of *Lo Spirito Santo* at *Rome*, which is among the oldest of Europe, is rather a town than a single edifice. It is built upon an angle formed by the winding of the *Tiber*, near the *Castle St. Angelo*, and occupies one side of a long street. A large part, however, of this building, is assigned for the residence of canons, and other extraneous uses. It was originally erected in 1198; restored by *Alexander the Seventh*; and an immense new building was added by the munificent but extravagant *Braschi*, *Pius the Sixth*. Besides the wards for the cure of ordinary diseases, there are annexed a mad-house, an hospital for consumptions, and a foundling hospital.

The building being the work of different ages, the wards are not all equally well constructed, and, in general, the ventilation is imperfect. The new building on the opposite side of the street, erected by *Pius the Sixth*, is by far the best. The upper story of it is a long chamber, divided in its length by two rows of pillars supporting arcades; it is capable of holding five hundred beds. This edifice was, however, totally empty, and several wards of the old building were unoccupied. Even in those chambers which were in use, the sick were crowded in five or six rows at one extremity, while the other end was unoccupied. The object of this accumulation, is to save the expense of additional fires and attendance; an œconomy which, if not necessitated, must be taxed as a vicious and contemptible parsimony.

The service of the hospital is performed by four principal and four assistant physicians. Besides the regular physicians and surgeons, there are clinical professors in both branches, who have wards appropriated to their especial service.

The condition of this hospital is far from cleanly; and its practitioners do not enjoy a great reputation for zeal. In the mad-house, especially, no effort is made for the cure of the disease. The number of patients in this department was under two hundred, of both sexes, including epileptics, who, as in other similar establishments in Italy, are confined promiscuously with the insane. The furious were confined with a chain and collar passed round the neck. In the Foundling Hospital the females are supported till they get married, and the smaller tradesmen occasionally visit the hospital for the purpose of choosing a wife. I observed over one of the doors leading to this part of the building, an anathema, in large letters, against those who presumed to cross its threshold, without due permission being first obtained. In one of the largest wards of the *Santo Spirito* is an organ, which plays during meals, for the



solace of the sick. This very equivocal comfort was, I believe, the result of individual charity.

When I visited this hospital, the greater number of patients were affected with intermittents, and with pulmonary complaints. These last, which are frequent at Rome, are attributed to the frequent changes of temperature; I cannot, however, but suspect that they are more probably the sequelæ of marsh fevers. During the prevalence of the Walcheren fever among our soldiers, I saw very many patients attacked with peripneumonies of the most acute sort, and I scarcely inspected one individual who died of that fever, in whom marks of thoracic congestion were altogether wanting. At Rome, on the other hand, the changes of temperature, though great, are not sudden. The mornings indeed are cold in winter, when compared with the glowing heat of the sunny noons; but cold dry winds, which are much more common causes of pleurisy and other acute affections of the lungs, are very rare in the spring climate of this city. The practice of the *Sto. Spirito* in these pulmonary cases was far from active. The abstraction of blood seldom exceeded ten ounces at a single operation, and decoctions of bark and polygala seemed more favourite remedies than those of an anti-phlogistic character: a circumstance which favours my conjecture on the nature of these maladies.

Concerning the HOSPITALS OF NAPLES my remarks were few. Of the two principal, for acute and for chronic diseases, the former contains seven or eight hundred sick. The practice most probably is French, but I could not learn that, as a school of medicine, it was distinguished by remarkable activity. The most striking features in this establishment were the apartments which, like those of the *Maisons de Santé* in France, are let out at a small weekly sum (fifteen ducats—something more than two guineas per month). These are good and comfortable; and the patients are supplied with every thing necessary for food and medicine. Murat, who, whatever may have been his faults, had all the virtues of a kindly disposition, with much of that activity of intellect, which characterized the school to which he belonged, presented this hospital with a complete set of surgical instruments, according to the best models of Paris; a donation of incalculable advantage to the art, in a country so far removed from the great centres of civilization and scientific activity.

The ALBERGO DE' POVERI is an enormous poor-house, begun by Charles the Third, and not yet completed. It contains one thousand five hundred men and boys, and seven hundred women, who are maintained, not only in

comfort, but in the magnificence of a royal foundation. The youth are taught trades, and are draughted off to the army. The principal branches of employment are, the coral manufactory (chiefly employing the girls), linen and cotton spinning and weaving, tailoring and shoe-making, type-founding and printing. There are likewise, a Lancastrian school; a music school; schools for different arts; a theatre; a chapel; and a college, in which pensioners are admitted. The whole of the wards, as well for sleeping as for use during the day, are as clean as the best private house; the food is of a good quality; and the children well clothed and healthy. The boys are trained to arms, and the movements of the institution are conducted by beat of drum. The number of cripples, as is always the case among the poor, was very considerable, and beauty was far from being the characteristic of the place. Mendicants are forced to enter into this establishment; a circumstance which keeps the streets of Naples tolerably clear; but the environs of the city teem with these worst of nuisances. The French had endowed the hospitals, the *Albergo de' Poverj*, the *Maison de Caroline*, the *Institut*, &c. with landed property. The Austrians, upon their arrival, seized the funds of the *Albergo*; and the establishment would have fallen into irretrievable ruin, but for the exertions of *Signor Sancio*, the present director, who stretched to the uttermost his means and his credit to supply the funds for preserving it in activity. The whole property of these charitable institutions was eventually sold. That which belonged to the *Institut* fell to the share of the minister *DE TOMMASIS*, who bought for one hundred thousand ducats, an estate that produces a revenue of sixteen thousand ducats per annum. The charities are now supported by the government.\*

Such is the condition of the principal hospitals of Italy, which I had the opportunity of inspecting with any advantage of local assistance. Their merits are for the most part such as might be expected, in a country where religion inculcates charity as a means of purchasing salvation, and remitting sin. The edifices are spacious and ample, usually beyond the funds for their support; and the material comforts of the sick are for the most part not scantily supplied. In the interior movement and regulation of the machine, the French hospital dis-

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\* The Neapolitans are loud in their praises of an hospital for the insane lately established at *Aversa*: and it was a severe disappointment to me, not to have been able to examine personally the processes which are said to be there very successfully employed in the treatment of the patients.

cipline very generally prevails. In all that concerns science, they appear to labour under those inconveniences which spring from gratuitous education, and low rates of remuneration, which tend to diminish the average talent and zeal brought to the culture of the profession. Still, however, the physicians and surgeons of Italy are amongst its most enlightened citizens, partly from the nature of the subjects they are called upon to investigate, and in part from the independence of the career itself. In the north of Italy, especially, professional attainment is mixed with no inconsiderable portion of philosophy and general information. In every age the various states of Italy have produced men of European repute, who have contributed largely to the mass of medical information, and their names will be repeated with gratitude as long as the medical art shall be cultivated in Europe.

CONNECTED in a remote degree with the present subject, is the climate of Italy, considered in a medical point of view. Upon the slightest suspicion of pulmonary disease, it is our custom in England to hurry the patient off to Italy; and the public papers abound with that bitter sarcasm on the practice, "died in Italy, where he went for the recovery of his health." From the experience which a rather extensive journey has afforded me, I should think no climate less adapted to an invalid. The extremes of heat in summer are insufferable, and must necessarily prove debilitating to oppressed and feeble constitutions. In winter the cold in some places, and especially at Florence, is intense; and the thermometrical difference between the sunny time of the day, and the mornings and evenings, from twelve to twenty degrees of Fahrenheit. During the early months of spring, the cold at Naples was of the same dry and piercing quality as that which attends our March winds, and the contrast between the sunny and shady side of the street was formidable. At the latter end of February, we had the mild summer heat of our northern climates; and in March Vesuvius was covered with snow. Besides these natural evils, the invalid has to contend too frequently with social deficiencies, the absence of chimneys, of carpets, and of doors and windows that exclude the air. In all the capital cities, it is true, the rich may be accommodated to their wish; but not so those to whom œconomy is an object; and all classes must travel, and occasionally sleep in unglazed rooms.

During the summer months the climate of the north of Italy is delicious: the refreshing breezes, which come from the Alps, preserve a temperature sufficiently moderate; and the lakes afford a variety of picturesque and delight-

ful retreats. The baths of Lucca also are sought at this season, as combining the cooling breezes of mountain and of sea. The invalid, however, should not remain too late in the vicinity of Florence; but hurry on to the more genial air of Rome, where alone he will find a mild winter, and be protected, during the early spring months, from cold winds.

On returning from Naples to Rome, at the end of the month of March, we found the vegetation much more advanced at the latter than at the former city. Notwithstanding, therefore, that the more extensive subsistence of the palm, Indian fig, myrtle, and orange-trees, in the kingdom of Naples, indicates an additional step towards the south; yet it may be safely presumed that the winter and spring is milder at Rome, than upon the immediate shores of the Bay of Naples.

The great difficulty attendant upon shifting quarters and adapting the residence to the time of year, proceeds from the Mal-aria, which prevails during the warmer months in the rice districts, in the Campagna of Rome, the Pontine marshes, and, in general, wherever there is not a sufficient descent to carry superfluous moisture to the sea. The period at which the marsh miasmata become dangerous, depends upon the warmth and moisture of the season; but early in the summer its effects are felt even in the city of Rome itself, in the Piazza del Popolo and the extremity of the Via Babbuina, (places much inhabited by strangers.) On this account, few travellers visit Rome before November, or protract their stay much after Easter. The effect of this poison is greatly increased at night, and especially during sleep: the traveller, therefore, should avoid stopping in infected districts. Nothing is more common than for persons to pay the forfeit of their lives for neglecting this simple but imperative rule.

Respecting the cause of the miasma, there seems no reason for doubt or hesitation. It is demonstrably connected with the changes going forward wherever the sun acts with power on a marshy surface, or one imperfectly covered with water. Concerning its progressive increase at Rome, it is difficult to get any decided information: the natives being used to the evil, treat it with great comparative disregard; and jealousy for the honour of the city prevents their speaking freely on the subject. This much, however, is certain, that the district surrounding the church of St. John Lateran is totally deserted on account of the fever; and it is fair to suppose that the malady was not endemic there, when such an edifice was commenced. If

we are not totally deceived as to its cause, there are certain general facts in which it is impossible to be misled. The whole plane country from the mountains to the shores of the Mediterranean, is ground reclaimed from the sea, at a period anterior to historic record, by the ejection of an immense stratum of volcanic ashes, forming the light porous substance called tufa. The spongy nature of this soil and the flatness of the surface, little raised above the level of the sea, must have combined in all ages to produce marsh fever. The environs of the mouth of the Tiber must especially have been the seat of pestilence. But in proportion as the surface of the soil was broken by the plough, and a system of drainage adopted, sufficient to allow of the growth of corn, this evil must have abated, if it did not totally disappear: by a similar process the last generation saw the extinction of ague in the county of Berwick, in Scotland. In a matter of science, these general facts are worth all the citations of classical authorities: they cannot deceive; and the deduction from them is, that the evil must have increased, when war, the desertion of Rome, and the fall of the land into the possession of great and careless proprietors, restored it once more into the hands of nature. Want of culture produced disease, disease thinned and exiled the population; and these two causes, acting in a vicious circle, are abundantly sufficient to explain the phenomena.

With respect to any immediate increase of pestilence in Rome itself, another circumstance remains to be mentioned. Whenever marshes are near to a great city, the intervention of woods must necessarily form a screen to impede the wafting of contagion by the winds. This seems to have been understood by the ancients, who, perhaps, consecrated the forests in the vicinity of the city to Neptune, in order to secure them from the axe. In the distresses, in which the great expenditure of Pius the Sixth had involved the exchequer of the Holy See, a large district of these woods had been sold and cut; and to this event there may with some reason be attributed an increase of danger to the unprotected city. The doubts and difficulties which have embarrassed this subject seem to have arisen from the narrow and circumscribed views, which have been taken of the question. The arguments which have been grounded from certain local circumstances of exemption, or of infliction, are well calculated to produce error, where all the coincident particulars are not weighed, under the direction of a general principle. These, however, sink into insignificance

when the disease is shewn to be the same which subsists not only in Italy, but in Holland, England, the coast of Africa, and wherever moisture and heat combine to corrupt the surface of the soil. This is the one great feature common to all the instances; and, according to every rule of induction, it must be taken as the efficient cause of the phænomena. The increase of this pest with the spreading culture of rice, and with the irrigation of flat meadow lands, comes as a sort of synthetic proof of the proposition; so that perhaps there is no truth in medicine more satisfactorily established, than the connexion of cause and effect in this series of facts.

It is not without considerable hesitation that these very scanty remarks on an extensive and important subject are given to the public. The variety of objects which present themselves to the notice of the general observer, the numerous subdivisions of the country, and the extensive territory over which they are spread, allow not of that concentrated attention, without which a perfect idea of the medical condition of Italy can scarcely be attained. Such observations, however, as circumstances permitted the author to make, though deficient as a whole, may be acceptable, *pro tanto*, as the mere indexes to further investigation; and, placed in an appendix, they may, perhaps, meet that indulgence, which is not usually conceded to the more presumptuous claims of a substantive publication.

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